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ABSTRACT

In order to discover how the concept of handicappedness can best be presented to children and what are the effective styles of the professionals who work with disabled children, a thematic content analysis of the children's television program Mister Roger's Neighborhood--particularly segments dealing with social role and self-concept--will be conducted. It is expected that media use analysis and communication assessment procedures will identify those persons who share similar media use characteristics. A systematic way of being creative can be predicted to increase the visible range of choices in media use in exponential proportions, greatly expanding the possible ways that the Mister Roger's Neighborhood program segments and materials can deliver educationally to the child. Once media use patterns are expanded in this way, and once specific patterns of use by professionals and the special child are identified, it should be possible to plan and design subsequent segments and materials to effectively reach both audiences.

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**"MISTER ROGERS' NEIGHBORHOOD"
AND THE HANDICAPPED CHILD INTERFACE:**

**EXPLORING AND ASSESSING INTEGRATION OF
EDUCATIONAL MEDIA AND PROFESSIONAL SERVICES
TO THE HANDICAPPED CHILD**

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"Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" is a national children's television program which deals primarily with affect. Fred Rogers, the "star" of the program, projects various themes of self-esteem. In an effort to more effectively and positively deal with the self-esteem of handicapped children and the perceptions of normal children regarding the issue of handicappedness, research has been done to discover how this can be best accomplished. Inquiry was designed to discover how the concept of handicappedness can best be presented to children and what are the effective styles of the professionals who work with disabled children. The findings will be applied in new program designed to facilitate self-esteem and better acceptance and understanding regarding the handicapped child.

There is only one person in
the whole world exactly like
you, and I like you just the
way you are. You are special.

Fred Rogers

Purpose of the Study

(1) To conduct thematic content analysis of the "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" program fan letters, scripts, and materials (newsletters, color posters, newspapers, etc.), particularly those segments related to social role, self-concept, and developmental potentialities of the handicapped child.

(2) To apply creative techniques for expanding the range of possible ways of constructively exploiting "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" program segments and materials which serve the needs of the handicapped child.

(3) To assess effective uses of selected program segments and related materials by professionals working with the handicapped child.

Procedures

The problem is construed in three stages of educational flow:

- (a) "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" program segments and materials;
- (b) the role and functions of the professional;
- (c) the handicapped child.

Focused interview data, thematic content analysis, and data culled by Guttman procedures provided preliminary insights and was used for constructing a Mister Rogers Q-analysis. This is being administered to professional workers to identify patterns of possible uses for supplemental educational materials associated with "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood". Simultaneously "A Systematic Way of Being Creative" (37) is being employed for expanding the range of possible ways the program segments and materials can be used for facilitating the growth of the handicapped child. Survey questionnaire is also being systematically gathered regarding both the professional worker and the child, as well as Focused Interview data.

It is expected that media use analysis and communication assessment procedures will identify those persons who share similar media use characteristics and provide us with insights regarding the nature and strengths of these patterns. A systematic way of being creative can be predicted to increase the visible range of choices in media use in exponential proportions, greatly expanding the possible ways that "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" program segments and materials can deliver educationally to the child. Once media use patterns are expanded in this way, and once specific patterns of use by professionals and the special child are identified, it should then be possible to plan and design subsequent segments and materials to effectively reach two audiences.

. . . they fear we do not have
far to go before we have
pocket-size TV along with
wrist-watch radios, so that
no one will ever have to reach
for a book to escape from
himself--nor will he want to
in order to find himself.

David Riseman (40)

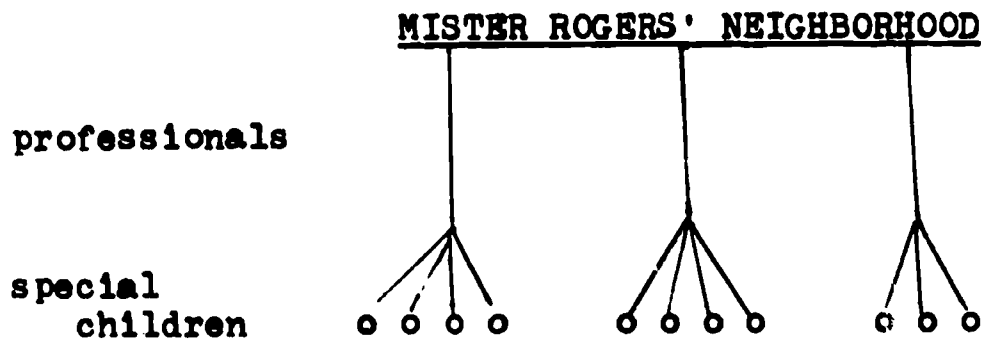
The Problem

We are in the midst of an educational media and materials explosion. Technologically, production of media materials is not the problem, but effective human communication which can facilitate learning has not yet been realized full potential. Where we are particularly concerned with special (i.e. handicapped) children, the second-stage flow of information, influence,

and facilitation of learning is especially critical because these children are, in various ways, less mobile. They may be required to ride a special bus, thus limiting their freedom of choice in walking to the nearby school and limiting the social interaction which other children are involved in to and from school. A blind child cannot seek out information in the same way a normal child can browse, and so on. Special children are more dependent upon professionals (including teachers, special education consultants and trainers: therapists, tutors, parents, etc.) to assure that the media and materials are effectively and appropriately delivered to them, since they are less free to seek out the media materials and resources. Our modern technology has become "pocket-sized", as Riesman suggests, but technological portability and effective use of media and materials are not the same. The potential which is implicit in the increased availability of educational media and materials must be fully realized. We are very short of research findings, and we are very short of theory, although there are some large theoretical contexts and bodies of knowledge which can be applied toward practical application.

Theory and Method

It might be of help to provide a visual scheme of this construction of the problem. Given the purpose of this study, the problem can be considered in terms of "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" television program segments, the professional workers, and the special child:



Interpersonal Communication Features

"Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" is not a "program" but rather is known as a "television visit." Fred Rogers talks with the child in much the style we might expect the professional worker or another child at times to relate to the special child. Studies by Lazarsfield(24), Katz (19), and others have long ago demonstrated that behavior change is strongly associated with interpersonal influence. In this case it is expected that Mister Rogers' style is not only consistent with these findings, but offer the possibility of having similar impact to person-to-person influence. Associate Producer Hedda B. Sharapan (45) reports that the program is a dialogue between Fred Rogers and the child. She reports that the program will provide constructive role models for the special child. She reports that the program will provide constructive role models for the special child, such as Fred Rogers forming relationships with guests such as Don Brockett, who is orthopedically handicapped. She says, "We plan to include in our neighborhood more handicapped individuals, continually stressing relationships between people." (45) The interpersonal influence is being provided by Fred Rogers as a model with handicapped persons by demonstrating interpersonal communication

between a normal and handicapped person, and directly to the child by the style, or way, Fred Rogers talks with the child. The other form of more conventional interpersonal influence is provided by the professional in face-to-face interaction with the child and as a facilitator of communication between the child and other children.

The learning resources, then, while not identical to direct interpersonal learning under all conditions, nevertheless have such potential in both intent and style. Hedda Sharapan reports that there are also plans to show a handicapped child within the context of a family. These styles of interpersonal influence are consistent with previous findings. The Mister Rogers style and previous research results suggest that our model systematically identify and exploit these insights. Berenda (6) found that school children had more influence on their peers than did their teachers, even though the teacher was presumably an "authority" figure. Mister Rogers is clearly not an authority figure, but "visits with" the child, talks with the child. Similarly, Dunker (9) reported that children were more likely to follow the lead of other children rather than adults. Mister Rogers is an adult, but it appears that he manages to let the child know he understands what it is like to be a child. At least he approaches his visits with an interpersonal style of presenting himself to his audience. Similarly, when he builds a relationship on the program with a handicapped person it will be done at an interpersonal level, providing an interpersonal role

model for the handicapped child as he or she views him or herself in a similar situation.

The Professional Role

It must be emphasized that the professional's selection of "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" or other program segments represents what it is, to her, the most favorable alternative at the time from the possible alternatives of which she is aware. These are limited to alternatives of which she is aware at the time. She has a choice of providing the child or allowing the child subsequent choices of "watching television" and "other alternatives." She may anticipate that it would be in the best interest of the child to let the child watch television at that particular time, rather than encourage the child toward other alternatives which might be more favorable to her personally at that time. She might personally prefer the child engage in clean-up time, or put his things away but sense that he has worked enough for now. Given "watching television" represents a decision, her most favorite alternative may be seen as a subsequent choice from among the programs offered at the time. If her past experience has led her to expect that television, and subsequently "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" is generally an enjoyable and developmental pastime compared with other alternatives and other program choices, and the child is able to watch it, her choice will be of the first order.

In such a case she focuses down to choices from among the programs offered at the time. Let us suppose there are four

such choices including "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" plus programs A, B, and C. "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" and program A both have certain qualities or themes of content and style which reflect her assumptions as tested by past experience and observations of the child. Programs B and C have content and style also, of course, but not the particular combination of elements or qualities which she associates with learning or enjoyment for the child. Since she responds in her professional role more favorably to the themes in "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" and in program A, she will make her choice felt with the child by encouraging and/or actually selecting either "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" or program A. If "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" represents these themes more fully than they are represented in program A then "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" is more likely to be selected on the television set for the child.

Suppose program B is "Mission Impossible," which she sees as both violent and also unrealistic, and she assumes neither of these qualities is in the best interest of the child. And let us suppose program C is the movie, "The Gunfighter," which is also violent, and she sees it as somewhat unrealistic, although not as unreal as "Mission Impossible." So far, program B is the program she is least likely to select, and program C is next least likely. Let us further suppose that program A is "Merv Griffin," which she sees as having the quality of quiet tranquillity and calm as contrasted with the other programs offered at that particular time, but not responsive to the experience of

being a child, especially a child who is handicapped. She sees "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" as having the quiet, soft, quality even more than in program A, and she sees "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" as a person who talks with the child. Consequently she selects "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" over programs B, C, and A.

Let us postulate that our professional person has a favorite of all favorite programs. Let us call it the Ideal program. This is the program which provides--as she understands the child--the very best possible combination of all of the elements which she associates with learning and growth and which she associates with fun, play, enjoyment for the child. (She may be responding to these same elements directly herself, although at this time and place her self concept as a professional is above her own particular personal tastes). It cannot be "known" that the Ideal is her ultimate favorite, of course, for she has not actually seen all possible programs. All such programs do not exist. Nevertheless, this hypothetical program, would, if seen, more closely reflect the combination of elements of what we shall regard as her Ideal program for the child more than any other program.

A way of looking at her Ideal program is to consider her selective behavior, as though all possible programs did exist, and were all equally available at a given time. Given a perfectly free choice (i.e. she can select any one program from the total at any time) we would expect that she would select program Ideal first, and there would be a rank-order selection of specific programs to follow. If the order of component qualities

(i.e. combinations of elements) in her perceptions were known, we could predict a pattern for her for each program in the universe of program choices.

Since our viewer lives and functions in the natural, social context of a dynamic society of interdependent members, we cannot expect such "pure" conditions. (We want to establish conditions which estimate the Ideal choice as closely as possible, within the limits of her social environment, in order that we can use the estimate for predictions by comparing it with other indices.) The natural conditions which do exist require us to ask: What dimensions of influence can we expect to be operating which would tend to deter her from selecting or influencing the selection of the Ideal program?

Mutual expectations could strongly influence actual selection. Suppose the Ideal program is scheduled at this particular moment, and she is free to select it for the child, but the child has very different ideas. He happens to enjoy lots of violence and unrealistic fantasy of the style which is best reflected in "Mission Impossible," which also happens to be scheduled at this particular moment. She might now anticipate the consequences of selecting the Ideal for the child, or insisting he watch it, as against the consequences of allowing him to watch "Mission Impossible." She assumes that the Ideal program has a developmental quality, that the child grows in important ways as he watches this program. She observes that the Ideal program has a calming effect on him, increases his sense of self-worth, and

provides him with a clearer sense of reality. She also notices that the child expresses a hunger for excitement, strong action, and a kind of escape into an unreal adult world. It has been a long day, much of it characterized by various forms of positive learning. The actual decision of what is selected will be based, at least in part, upon how important she thinks the child's choice is to him, as against how important she feels the Ideal program is to him--and, subsequently, to her. It is assumed that this will depend largely upon how much she knows about what meanings he has for the various choices available.

Everything which has been said about her could be applied to him as well. He has expectations for her, as she does for him. In both cases they may anticipate the other's gratifications with what is selected. In both cases they may anticipate the other's meaning for the program choice in terms of mutual goals, or learning. And in both cases these anticipations will be based upon their knowledge of the other's gratification with the choice and/or the aspiration-to-learn implications associated with each respective program. If he is less aware of the developmental implications than she is, it would not be surprising to find that her choices are more often reflected in her influences upon him. If she is less aware of the fun and enjoyment for him in certain choices, it would not be surprising to find that his preferences are more often expressed in this direction than are hers.

The professional's behavior is determined by her expectations of subsequent events. These expectations evolve out of her observations of patterns in past experience, and especially

as these experiences are associated with the behavior of the child. She constructs a pattern of expectations, which, to her, are meaningful, and she applies these assumptions in her relationship with the child. Behavior based upon these patterns allow her to help the child seek an extended relationship with his world, and such extensions imply similar extended relationship for her in her world. Her "world" is the child. Both persons, both child and adult, find this both useful and gratifying. This decision process applies not only to "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" and not only to television, but applies in all their relationship as a professional and as a child. The professional has the additional characteristic of facilitating growth for the child as a professional; she observes patterns of how one variable affects another in relation to the child's growth and well-being and as she anticipates such patterns effectively she senses a greater validation of herself. Much of her self-validation depends upon the assumptions she makes about development and communication which she applies in the particular relationship with this particular child, her "theory of communication."

It is assumed here that these processes just described, although not directly observable, reflect "reality" for the professional and for the child and may be inferred from certain observable behavior. Such inferences provide one way of formulating a basis for prediction regarding not only television but also other educational media and materials for the handicapped. It will be important to remain aware that the reality we speak

of is "real" for the professional and for the child regardless of how distorted it may appear to the observer.

As the professional perceives herself in her environment with the child, continuously relating herself by structuring patterns of expectations in general about communication and development, she develops a larger system of anticipations. This may be called an "ideal self," or "ideal self-image," and is expressed, in part, in program selections as well as in the selections and uses of other media materials. This greater construction represents the kind of person (i.e., professional) she would like to be, for she expects that as this "ideal professional" she could extend the child's orientation to the world--and her own, accordingly--still further. For example, if she feels she "ought not" allow the child to watch violence and adult fantasy she might experience an uneasy sensation as the child watches his favorite instead of her choice for him. She might even enjoy his favorite herself, personally, but not apply this construction to him, or to herself in her professional role. Such behavior might also influence the way she answers specific questions about her perceptions of the child, or about her theory of communication and learning.

We have seen that the professional person has expectations of specific kinds of programs, expectations of the child regarding learning and enjoyment, and expectations of herself. We have also said that these two persons can share mutual expectations of herself. We have also said that these two persons can

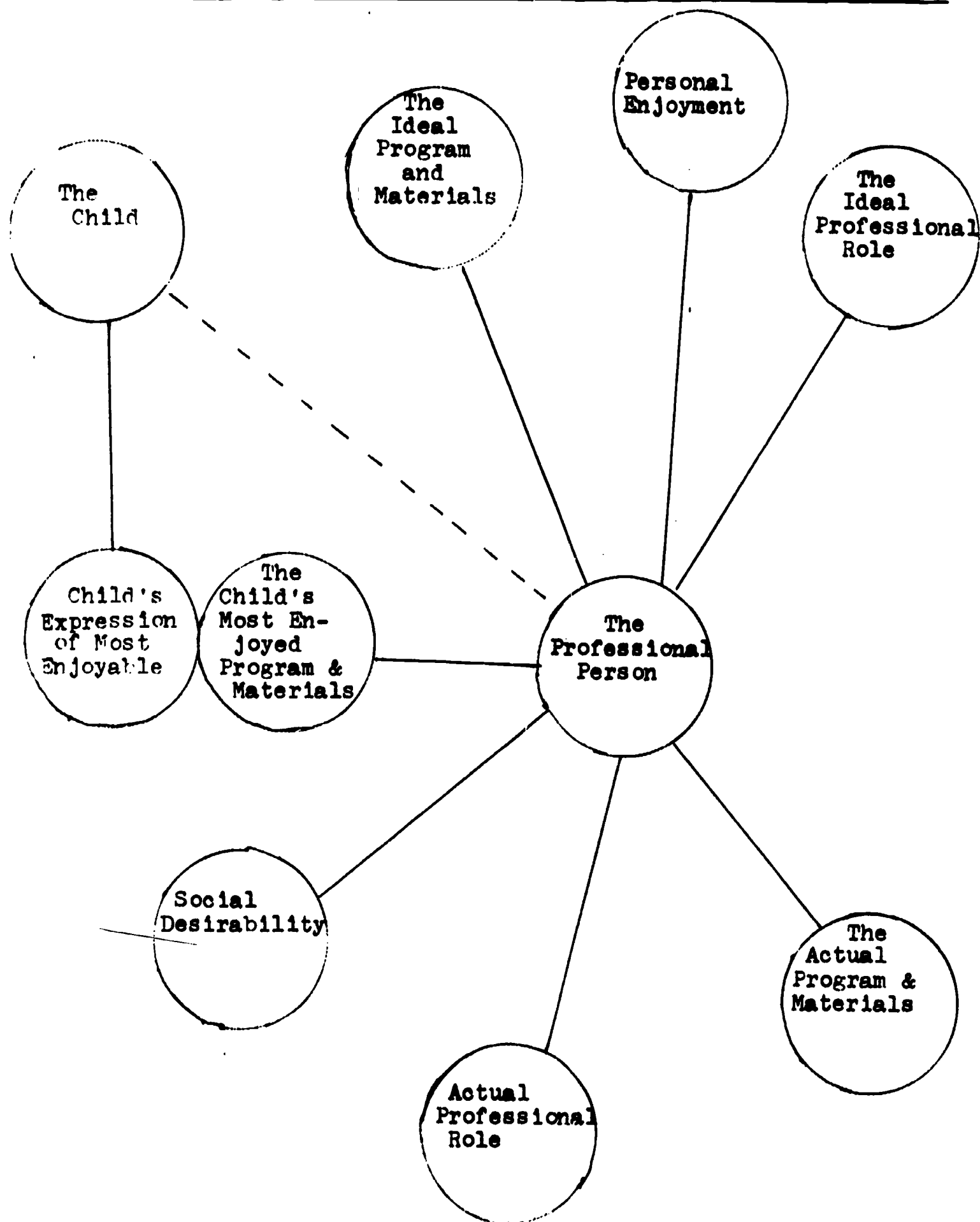
share mutual expectations of each other which based largely upon their mutual knowledge of each other's choices, or preferences for certain alternatives. This has further implications. Since she has expectations of him, and he of her, it would also follow that she has expectations of his expectations of her, and he has expectations of her expectations of him. Although this series of "continous reflections" could be carried on to maddening excess, it is not our intention to press it further. The notion is simply represented in the concept of the "significant other." If she knows what expectations he has of her choices for him, this may not only influence the content of their communication; it might also be reflected in her expressions of what she expresses that she wants him to do, to choose, especially if these expressions are made in his presence. The presence of the interviewer should be considered in much the same way. Although it is not possible to gather data in a social vacuum, it is important to remain aware of likely influences. Answers to questions might, at least in part, represent what she expects is being expected of her. We must consider this especially where the respondent's self-concept as a "professional" is involved as well as her self-concept as a person. And we must consider this especially where the program appears to reflect all the "food" (i.e. socially desirable) qualities of content and style.

These mutual expectations may be more broadly considered in terms of social desirability. The professional predicts the child. She also predicts other children, as well as other adults. They predict her. And they each anticipate each other's

predictions of themselves. Since we are concerned with the individual professional we will, for the moment, ignore what others, broadly speaking, might "really" expect of her, and focus specifically upon what she perceives to be broadly expected of herself by others. This is what we mean by "socially desirable" and "socially undesirable." She may, for example, enjoy reading romance magazines at home, but avoid carrying one of these to her office, or show them to the child. This does not suggest that she "really" likes romance stories, and hide this fact from the child or her superior at work. She simply behaves differently under different sets of conditions. Previous studies strongly suggest that a person might express something other than "real" data by saying what he or she thinks "ought" to be expressed under those particular conditions. This is not necessarily a "false" report, or dishonesty in the usual meaning of the word. At the time she says she will behave in a certain way, in the presence of an interviewer, she may sincerely mean what she says. When she is alone she may see things quite differently. When it is five o'clock in the afternoon and her young handicapped friend is expressing a choice which is not at all the same as her choice for him, she may again see things quite differently from her previous expectations of herself under other conditions. She simply envisions the future situation as being different from what it turns out to be. Her decisions are based upon outcomes she expects to be self-extending and validating for herself and for the child and these expectations are interdependent, as we have seen.

Confusion will result if we try to pretend that she is composed of a given number of separate, independent entities--such as "socially expressed self" and a "professional self" and an "inner real self"--and that she would fit nicely into a single mold if we could only find the right one. Each change has, for her, its own reality, including the various dimensions of influence imposing themselves upon her as well as her ways of responding to them. We perceive her in the same way in the world of the child. She is the swiftly flowing succession of many images, each representing a different reality, and each superimposing itself upon the last to form a total composite picture in our perceptions and in our investigation.

A Theoretical Model Showing Relationships Among Major Variables



Content and Style Features of "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood"

It is possible conceptually to pretend that the world of media offerings is objectively sliced up into "entertainment" and "education" as is often done, but we will try to avoid imposing schemes upon the special child. We might observe a special child watching a puppet on Mister Rogers and assume the child is involved in "entertainment". But were we to ask him or her, we might find the child is learning how to deal with his or her own fear in an important way. Or, we might find the special child working very "hard" at a difficult task and assume he or she is involved in "education." But, were we to inquire, the child might tell us about a frequent Mister Rogers lesson regarding persistence and pay-off. He often emphasizes the importance of staying with a difficult task and the joys of mastering the difficult. It is expected that there are important reasons why one special child enjoys the educational, or task-oriented activities, and why another child gives up. It is possible that one child has an adventuresome curiosity and interest and another does not. If so, it would be useful for the producers of the Mister Rogers media segments and materials to know more about what kind of child responds in what way to Mister Rogers' lessons. Insights into these respective behavior patterns will presumably suggest ways of designing media materials for each respective child's orientation, providing the child with wider and appropriate choices and thus stimulating them to take more initiative

in their selections. These questions raised by individual patterns of media usage are both socially important in terms of the handicapped child's role in the world and scientifically intriguing.

Content and style features will include themes consistent with the program's intent and apply to person analysis.

Gratification

Instant gratification implies that watching a Mister Rogers program segment is an end in itself, the experience is validated for the child for its own sake. Choice of such program segments provides for some present, immediate need, but promises nothing beyond that. There is no sense of frustration or tolerance behavior, or task persistence. The choice is an end in itself. Aspiration fulfillment implies that the child plans to use what he is learning, although he may also happen to enjoy the experience as well. For example, suppose an orthopedically handicapped child selects a program segment of Mister Rogers and Chef Brockett because he or she anticipated this may help him by providing a role model which he or she can follow, and the child also may happen to enjoy the dialogue between Mister Rogers and Don Brockett.

These two concepts are theoretically related to Freud's pleasures and reality principles (12), Schramm's immediate and delayed reward (43), Mowrer's two-factor learning theory (38), Westley and MacLean's need satisfaction and problem solutions(53),

and Festinger's consummatory and instrumental communication (11). There is a body of research literature which may be integrated into the Mister Rogers program intentions and this theoretical framework. The scheme, of course, can also be construed under traditional conceptions of "entertainment" and "education" program segments, or materials.

Maccoby (26) considers television fantasy as a childhood experience which is free from real-life controls, an escape, and as wishfulfillment. Waples and his colleagues (51) report that reading reduces anxiety or boredom by taking the reader from real life into a fantasy world of vicarious aggression, thus providing him with a "safety valve" for tension, or perhaps fear that Sharapan talks about. Even the selection of practical information at times serves a need for reduction of anxiety and brings a feeling of physical, emotional, social, or economic security. Anxiety is also associated with news-seeking behavior discussed by Kay (20), which he relates to the Law of Pragnanz, a Gestalt form of the so-called "balance" theories. Berlson (4) found newspaper reading to provide a respite from personal worries by taking the reader outside his immediate world. It is possible that similar behavior may be associated with Mister Rogers' color posters or other materials. Hollywood western motion pictures have been described by Elkin (10) as an escape from actual life; the movie-goer can live in a fantasy world which allows him to identify with a strong hero and thereby becomes superior to others. There may be evidence of this in the Neighborhood of Make-Believe. The concept of escape is discussed

in detail by Katz and Foulkes (18). Wolfe and Fiske (55) report that boys who read comics find a hero more perfect than father. How is Mister Rogers himself construed in this regard? Comics were also reported to have a tranquilizing effect for some readers. Even adults have been reported by Bogard (5) to identify, in a sense, with comic characters. He reports that the comics also provide analogies for the events of daily life and serve as vehicles for fantasy.

Aspiration

A significant portion of that research evidence which is available regarding media use suggests that a person's selection patterns and the meanings he has for messages may represent aspirations toward the fulfillment of social goals. This is related to Mannheim's focus of attention hypothesis. Klapper (22) summarized studies which indicated that reluctant persons sometimes select informative, high-level material with social motives in mind. He also reports that this can lead to liking the material for its own sake. This is supported by Krugman and Hartley (23) and others, and has important potential implications for uses and gratification of Mister Rogers' materials for this study. Waples (51) says that reading involves the reader in relations with others; it can provide the reader with social prestige if he selects books which are the latest titles, highly recommended, or difficult reading. What function does Mister Rogers viewing play socially? Berelson (4) found newspaper reading enabled readers to appear informed at social gatherings. Herzog (16) discovered that radio

listening helped listeners solve everyday problems, including social problems, and provided advice regarding socially acceptable and socially unacceptable forms of behavior. Mister Rogers' fan mail strongly suggests this is happening. Elkin's (10) analysis of the western movie emphasizes how the films articulate socially desirable moral values and how they illustrate both desirable and undesirable personality characteristics. There are clearly social values implied in the program (Fred Rogers is an ordained Presbyterian Minister). Using a form of the Thematic Apperception Test Warner and Henry (52) found that the Big Sister radio program helped listeners solve interpersonal problems. It gave listeners a feeling that it was "educational" for this reason. Big Sister also provided listeners with a feeling of significance and importance in their domestic roles. Bogart's interviews (5) disclosed that the comics provided the adult men with non-controversial or "safe" topics of conversation. Analysis of fan mail and interviews should provide us with guidelines for evaluating materials in this regard. Mendelsohn (30) found that the radio provided adults with information which can be discussed with others; a wife can keep up-to-date with her husband on current events, and radio sports reporting can provide non-controversial reference points for barbershop talk.

Aspiration for continual learning in Kelly's (21) sense allows us to consider the desire for self-improvement, such as that reported by Waples (51), or that which one might expect to find associated with a child who anticipates becoming an adult.

Construct theory allows us to take account of cognitive awareness, human curiosity, and the kind of intellectual adventuresomeness previously discussed. The ego-development mentioned by Sharapan and reported by Wolfe and Fiske (55) is also related to the theory of personal constructs, since a child's developments are constructions of events. Since Kelly's (21) theory allows us to account for feelings, the Waples (51) account of maximizing aesthetic experience through reading can also be included. We realize this is a sharp departure from traditional learning theories, but if we are to consider aspiration to learn, we must employ a conceptual framework which acknowledges learning as an expectation or anticipatory process in human experience.

O. J. Harvey's Four Systems

Since it is also important to be aware of how or in what manner people communicate, we have examined and included O. J. Harvey's "Four Systems." By combining these and the ideas of gratification and aspiration we have created a way of looking at the handicapped child and the professional in her ideal and actual roles, her manner of choosing programs for the child and her way of relating important information. The following description is gleaned from some of Harvey's extensive work.

Concreteness-abstractness refers to the quality of how the individual articulates and organizes his concepts of the ego-relevant aspects of his environment. Concreteness-abstractness refers to a superordinate conceptual dimension which

encompasses such attributes as degree of differentiation, extent and complexity of integration, centrality of the cognitive elements, openness to new information, and the capacity to modify the existing structure.

At the behavioral level of concreteness is manifested in high stimulus-response connection, the extreme of which can be illustrated by the invariant flight of the moth toward the stimulus of a light. More abstract functioning, on the other hand, because of a more complex and enriched interpretive system and the consequent ability to transcend the immediate characteristics of stimuli and to entertain multiple interpretations of these impingements, is reflected in less stimulus-responses compellingness and in greater relativism in thought and action.

From a wide variety of studies it has been found that concreteness is manifested in numerous ways, such as those described below, while greater abstractness has been found to accompany reversed quantities on these dimensions; (1) A greater tendency toward more evaluative, more extreme and more polarized judgments. (2) A greater dependence on social cues relating to role, status, and formal authority as guidelines to judgments and behavior. (3) A greater intolerance of ambiguity, expressed in higher scores on such measures as the California F Scale and Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale and in the tendency to form snap judgments. (4) A greater inability to change set and try different approaches, and hence greater rigidity in the solution of new and complex problems. (5) A greater tendency to confuse means with ends and to overly concentrate on details at the expense of

the larger picture. (6) A greater insensitivity to subtle social cues and hence a greater tendency to persevere in old ways to approaching problems and doing things. (7) A poorer capacity to role play, to put oneself in another's boots and to see the world from his point of view. (8) A Greater tendency toward trite and normative behavior and thus a lower level of creativity. (9) A greater tendency to form and generalize impressions of other people from highly incomplete information.

Representatives of the different belief systems differ not only in level of concreteness-abstractness but also with regard to the content areas or referents which are highly significant for them in which they exhibit strong personal involvement. Thus, for an individual to be classified as representing a particular belief system, his responses must indicate both a given level of concreteness-abstractness and a particular content in which he is highly involved.

The social referents with which an individual or one level of concreteness-abstractness is most involved may not be the same as the referents of greatest involvement for a person of different level of concreteness-abstractness. Variation in content may be reflected not only by a difference in referents in which individuals are involved but also in the affective direction of the involvement, a person of one system being highly positively involved while a person of another system may be highly negatively involved in the same content area.

From the intersection of ego involving content with levels of concreteness-abstractness, a number of belief systems may be

deduced. Our major theoretical and research interest has centered around the four systems summarized below.

System 1. This mode of interpreting and responding to the world best fits the description of concrete functioning presented earlier. Individuals in this System are easily distracted by conditions that depart from what they are accustomed to; in such new and unstructured situations they tend to make snap judgments and extreme evaluations and responses. These individuals show great dependence on external authority, relying in an absolute, institutionalized authority, tradition, etc. An intolerance of unstructuredness and uncertainty results in a strong tendency for these individuals to confuse means with ends and to get rigidly committed to a single solution, "the right way." In addition, representatives of System 1 tend to show ritualistic adherence to rules without understanding, high religiosity, high absolutism, high evaluativeness, high identification with social roles and status positions, high conventionality and high ethnocentrism.

System 2. This style of functioning is characterized by negativism an antirule and anti-athority orientation, and the tendency to reject and rebel against the guidelines used by the representatives of System 1. The cognitive structure is somewhat more differentiated than in System 1, perhaps exemplified by the ability of the values and practices of society. However, the cognitive organization remains poorly integrated and thinking still tends to be fairly rigid and short-sighted, as indicated

by inability of the System 2 individuals to envision the implications and possible effects of their rebellion against some of the more central norms and conventions of their society. Because of the ambiguity, vacillation, inconsistency and arbitrariness they experienced as developing youngsters, they associate unstructuredness with distrust, thus, their need for structure and intolerance of ambiguity remain high on the one hand, while, on the other hand, they deeply resent and deny such need and manifest suspiciousness and aggression toward the sources of authority that may provide it. Individuals from System 2, more than from any other system, are in a psychological void, rebelling against structure and authority while seeking it and wanting to be close to others and dependent upon them while being rendered fearful and anxious by the potential control that might accompany such interpersonal closeness.

System 3. This mode of functioning, next of the highest level of abstractness treated by Harvey, is characterized by a desire to be liked and by attempts to establish and maintain relationships that foster mutual dependency and allow for manipulation of others. In fact, System 3 representatives have come to rely upon dependency and manipulation of others as their primary techniques of controlling their environment. This type of interpersonal experience results in the conception of self as a casual agent, especially in social manipulations, and facilitates the development of a conceptual organization which is more differentiated and better integrated than that found in either System 1

or 2. System 3 individuals are much less categorical in their evaluations and tend to base their decisions on the effects they will have over others, representatives of this system are less deferential toward authority than representatives of System 1, less negative than individuals of System 2, and in general less concerned with extra-personal forces and institutionalized authority. They are, however, very concerned with attitudes of peers, social acceptance, and the standards of behavior prescribed by their particular reference group. Since they do not develop clearly delineated personal standards, they are in constant need of feedback from significant people in their environment in order to regulate their behavior to attain the acceptance and mutual dependency necessary to manipulate and control the behavior of others. System 3 representatives manifest the need both to be dependent on others and to have others dependent on them. Their dependency apparently is directed toward individuals of power and status while those whom they would have dependent upon them appear to be persons low in status, power, and enterprise possible because such persons would be easier to manipulate under the guise of helpfulness. Fearful of facing a situation alone, where success would depend upon individual performance and/or personally derived criteria, System 3 individuals are extremely vulnerable to the threat of rejection, social isolation and other social conditions that might prevent the existence or use of dependency relationships.

System 4. This style of functioning, the most abstract of the four systems, is characterized by high task orientation, information seeking, exploratory behavior, risk taking, independence without negativism, internal standards of conduct, personally derived criteria of evaluation, and relativism in thought and action. The conceptual structure is more highly differentiated and integrated than the other systems. These individuals are able to consider a given situation or problem from many points of view and are open to new information and capable of integrating such information into their existing thought processes, making appropriate modifications in their thinking and behavior if necessary. They, more than individuals from other systems, seek information before making a decision, especially if the decision is important to them, and display a capacity to see things in shadings of gray instead of as black or white. They are not oriented toward adhering to externally defined "truths" or conforming to inviolable social norms but at the same time they recognize the functioning value of certain rules and regulations. They, more than representatives of any other system, work for intrinsic rather than rewards. Unlike individuals of the other systems who associate unstructuredness with uncertainty, insecurity, fear of reprisal, fear of rejection, etc., representatives of System 4 interpret these conditions as indications of trust and respect and welcome the opportunity to exercise their independence and behave in accordance with their own socially responsible inclinations. Thus, System 4 individuals display a

low need for structure, a relatively high tolerance for ambiguity, an ability to differentiate between means and ends, an ability to articulate several ways of attaining the same goal, a capacity to "act as if", a high ability to change set, a tendency to avoid rigidity in solving problems, a high sense of self-esteem, causality and responsibility.

But there is another thing which I believe leads to trivial studies. This is the extensive use of experimental designs. Such designs are highly appropriate for systematic programs of research in areas where theory is already somewhat sophisticated. This is simply not the case for many of the important problems we face in education.

Malcolm S. MacLean, Jr.

Data Gathering Procedures

Accordingly, the following scheme combined with Harvey's four systems and the ideas of gratification and aspiration, serves as an interview guide, and provides a way of expanding optional uses of "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood" media material with the special child.

System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
A gratification		B aspiration	

(1A, 1B, 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, 4A, 4B)

The instrument employed in this way assesses at once all the variables under investigation through multivariate analysis. Data are being analyzed with persons as variables and items as observations using inverse factor analytic methods.

Educational data-gathering and analytic procedures traditionally measure persons across the board, as in R methodology. The method indicated here--which is a modification of Stephenson's Q (47)--considers the educational media and material user according to the important qualities they share with one another. Such qualities might be called behavioral or personality characteristics, especially with regard to educational media usage. When the basic orientations and motives of professionals and children are identified and understood, these insights may then be employed in the planning and strategy of educational materials. These may serve as guidelines in the production of "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood." Materials presented through the various public facilities via professionals for educational purposes can then be most appropriately designed for the intended audience--the special child.

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